DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 316 010 EC 230 016

AUTHOR Thorson, James A.; Faison, Karen
TITLE Workers with Special Needs: An Overview. Module I. Job Match: Together for Good Business.
INSTITUTION Nebraska Univ., Omaha. Center for Applied Urban Research.
SPONS AGENCY Administration on Developmental Disabilities (DHHS), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO ISBN-1-55719-173-5
PUB DATE Feb 87
GRANT DHHS-90DJ0100
NOTE 46p.; For related documents, see EC 230 015-020. Parts of the document have small print.
PUB TYPE Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adults; Business; Definitions; *Disabilities; Employers; *Employment Potential; Industry; *Job Placement; *Older Adults; *On the Job Training; Workshops

ABSTRACT

Intended for use with business and industry personnel, the training module is part of a kit designed to demonstrate how individuals with disabilities and older persons can be assimilated successfully into the labor force. This module provides an overview of the problems of persons with disabilities and older workers. It defines each of these groups, discusses common myths and stereotypes, provides factual information on actual performance, explains the major issues affecting these workers, and lists the benefits of hiring individuals with special needs for the individuals themselves, for employers, and for society. An introduction explains how to use the module providing information on desired competency of participants in the training sessions, the target audience, instructional objectives, materials, preparation, and sequence of instruction. An appendix provides definitions of major physical and mental disabilities. About 75 references. (DB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED316010

Module I

Workers with Special Needs: An Overview

SCOPE OF INTEREST NOTICE

The ERIC Facility has assigned this document for processing to: EC

In our judgment, this document is also of interest to the Clearinghouses noted to the right. Indexing should reflect their special points of view. CE

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Univ. of Nebraska
Center for Public
Affairs Research

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

EC 230016

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

WORKERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS: AN OVERVIEW

James A. Thorson
Karen Faison
Contributing Authors

Lois Rood
Instructional Designer

February 1987

Center for Applied Urban Research
College of Public Affairs and Community Service
University of Nebraska at Omaha

The University of Nebraska–An Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action Educational Institution

Published by

Center for Applied Urban Research
College of Public Affairs and Community Service
University of Nebraska at Omaha
Omaha, NE 68182
Telephone (402) 554-8311
February 1987

ISBN 1-55719-173-5

Project Staff

Principal Investigator and Project Manager:	Floyd T. Waterman
Instructional Designer:	Lois Rood
Content Consultants:	Lois Rood and Karen Faison
Community Service Associate:	Carole M. Davis
Editors:	Mary Kenny Baum, Sharon deLaubenfels, and Gloria Ruggiero
Cover:	Denise Sambasile
Graphics:	Joyce Carson and Bruce McCorkindale
Word Processing:	Loni Saunders
Composition and Layout:	Joyce Carson

Successful Job Matching and Job Placement Systems for the Developmentally Disabled and the Older Worker

This material was produced pursuant to a grant from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Human Development Services, Administration on Developmental Disabilities, to the Center for Applied Urban Research, University of Nebraska at Omaha. Grantees undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated here, therefore, do not necessarily represent policy or position of either the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services or the University of Nebraska.

Grant No. 90DJ0100
Project Officer: William Pittman

National Advisory Committee

Michael Callahan, President, Marc Gold and Associates, Syracuse, NY

Richard L. Drach, Consultant, Affirmative Action, E. I. DuPont deNemours and Company, Wilmington, DE

Carol Dunlap, National Project Director, Electronic Industries Foundation, Washington, DC

Steve Gallison, National Job Specialist, Horticulture Hiring the Disabled, Gaithersburg, MD

Stephen Greenspan, Acting Director, Connecticut's University Affiliated Program on Developmental Disabilities and Associate Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT

Irwin Kaplan, Manager Rehabilitation Training Programs, Federal Systems Division, International Business Machines (IBM), Gaithersburg, MD

Lynn Meyers, Assistant Director, Handicapped Placement Programs, AFL/CIO, Human Resource Development Institute, Washington, DC

Bernard E. Nash, Program Specialist, Worker Equity, American Association of Retired Persons (AARP), Washington, DC

A. Philip Nelan, F.S.C., Ph.D., Director, Handicapped Employment Programs, National Restaurant Association, Washington, DC

William Pittman, Program Officer, Employment Initiative Administration on Developmental Disabilities, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Washington, DC

Rudyard Propst, Education Director, Fountain House, Inc., New York, NY

Raymond Sanchez, Director, Employment Initiative Administration on Developmental Disabilities, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Washington, DC

Edward Sloan, Senior Equal Employment Opportunities Representative, Marriott Corporation, International Headquarters, Washington, DC

Claude W. Whitehead, National Consultant, Employment Related Services, Washington, DC

Acknowledgments

Deep appreciation is expressed to the individuals who were kind enough to review the written materials in this kit. They did so at an inconvenient time, but, nevertheless, they gave of their professional expertise cheerfully and without compensation. We wish to thank the following for their excellent suggestions and comments: Billie Dawson, Eastern Nebraska Community Office on Retardation; Richard Drach, DuPont; Carol Dunlap, Electonic Industries Foundation; Eric Evans, Nebraska Governor's Council on Developmental Disabilities; Deb Johnsen, Mid-Nebraska Mental Retardation Services; Irwin Kaplan, IBM; Cheri Kahrhoff, Northwestern Bell Telephone Company; Don Moray, Eastern Nebraska Community Office on Retardation; Bernard E. Nash, American Association of Retired Persons; A. Philip Nelan, National Restaurant Association; David Powell, Nebraska Association of Retarded Citizens; Rudyard Propst, Fountain House, Inc.; Lyn Rucker, Nebraska Region V Mental Retardation Services; John A. Savage, Booz, Allen and Hamilton, Inc.; Edward Sloan, Marriott Corporation; Tony Suazo, AFL/CIO Human Resources Development Institute; and Claude W. Whitehead, Employment Related Services.

Thanks are also expressed to Connie Sutherland who reviewed and edited the scripts for the audio-cassette tapes. We also thank Russell Smith, Director of the Center for Applied Urban Research for his encouragement and support of this project.

Lois Rood
Floyd Waterman

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN SERVICES

Office of
Human Development Services

Assistant Secretary
Washington DC 20201

While serving as Commissioner of the Administration on Developmental Disabilities, I had the opportunity to develop an Employment Initiative Campaign for employment of workers with disabilities. I am pleased to say that our campaign goals have not only been achieved, but exceeded. This success is due to the dedicated efforts of Governors' Planning Councils, various government committees and commissions, and, most importantly, employers who share our vision of economic self-sufficiency for all Americans with special needs. We have come a long way; more persons with disabilities are working but we still have far to go.

In the next century, the public and private sectors must work together toward a better transition for people with developmental disabilities from special education programs into the world of adult challenges and opportunities. Work provides not only financial benefits, but therapy; it contributes to self-identification and self-worth and is an economic necessity for most of us. The Employment Initiative offers great challenges and opportunities for developing and implementing creative approaches to this transition.

Researchers at the Center for Applied Urban Research, University of Nebraska at Omaha, found that many myths and stereotypes exist. They found that labels such as "disabled" and "older worker" sometimes create barriers to employment for these workers who have job skills but who also have special needs. Their investigation into the employment programs serving both individuals with disabilities, and older persons, revealed the need for closer cooperation between the public and private sectors. While some employers fear that accommodations will be elaborate or expensive, they are often very simple and inexpensive. Frequently, the employee can identify the best solution to the problem.

A vast and valuable pool of individuals with special needs are available and qualified for work. Although training materials exist to explain how employers can meet legal requirements, few provide specific information about developing partnerships between employers and human service agencies to tap the resources of workers with special needs. These materials will be useful to employers and will foster a job match that creates good business.

Jean K. Elder

Jean K. Elder, Ph.D.
Assistant Secretary
for Human Development Services

MODULE I

WORKERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS: AN OVERVIEW

How To Use This Module

The purposes of this training kit are outlined in *Introductory Guide: How to Use This Kit.*

Module I is designed for business and human service personnel. It provides an overview of the skills and problems of older workers and persons with disabilities. It defines each of these groups, discusses common myths and stereotypes, provides factual information on actual performance, explains the major issues affecting these workers, and lists the benefits of hiring individuals with special needs for individuals, employers, and society.

Competency:

After completing the training sessions, participants will be able to identify people with special needs and explain why they have often been excluded from the work force. If their special needs are accommodated, these workers can benefit employers. Job placement for persons with special needs is cost-effective for the employer, employee, and society.

Target Audience:

This module is designed for business and human service personnel who are concerned with helping persons with special needs find jobs.

Instructional Objectives:

Participants will:

1. Identify persons with special needs, including older workers and those with disabilities.

2. Discuss attitudes, myths, and stereotypes that have traditionally created employment barriers for these persons.

3. Discuss facts concerning performance.

4. Identify the major issues facing persons with special needs as they enter the work force.

5. Identify the factors that must be examined to ensure success in the workplace for persons with special needs.

6. Discuss ways the employer and society benefit from the presence of persons with special needs in the work force.

Materials:

In addition to reading this module, participants should view the videotape, "Job Match: Together for Good Business" and listen to the accompanying audio-cassette tapes included in this training kit. Additional resources are listed in the directory, *Business Practices and Resources*.

Preparation:

Those who will be teaching this material should: (1) Study the content, including the sections on older workers and persons with disabilities; (2) review the videotape, "Job Match: Together for Good Business"; (3) listen to the audio-cassette tape, "Workers with Special Needs: An Overview"; and (4) review the resources listed at the end of this module. Do extra reading as needed.

Sequence:

1. Prepare a short presentation on older workers; define the population and explore the myths and stereotypes of aging. Ask managers to provide examples.

2. Discuss the issues confronting older workers and identify the factors that influence employment success.

3. Prepare a short presentation about persons with disabilities; examine the myths and stereotypes that surround them and the effects of labeling.

4. Lead a discussion about persons with disabilities. Ask managers to provide examples of stereotyping and labeling.

5. Prepare a short presentation about issues confronting people with disabilities and the factors necessary for employment success. Ask managers to give examples of persons who are disabled and working.

6. Divide the large group into smaller groups (four-six persons each). Ask each group to discuss one of the problems facing older workers or persons with disabilities and to devise some possible solutions. After 20-30 minutes in small groups, reconvene for reports from each small group.

Contents

	Page
Introduction	1
Chapter 1. Aging and the Workplace: Issues and Concerns	3
Definitions	3
Myths and Stereotypes	6
Traditional Labels and Real Performance	10
Major Issues Concerning Older Workers and the Workplace	10
Factors in the Workplace	13
Benefits to Employees	14
Benefits to Employers	14
Effects on Society	15
Chapter 2. Disability in the Workplace: Issues and Concerns	17
Definitions	17
Myths and Stereotypes	18
Traditional Labels and Real Performance	20
Major Issues Concerning Individuals with Disabilities and the Workplace	21
Factors in the Workplace	24
Benefits to Employees	25
Benefits to Employers	25
Benefits to Society	26
Conclusion	27
Appendix	29
References	35

Introduction

The purpose of this module is to direct attention toward potential participants in the work force. They include individuals 55 years of age or older and persons with disabilities--workers with special needs.

Traditionally, businesses searched for and hired young, able-bodied persons. Employers assumed that they would fit more readily into a work force engaged in primary manufacturing or agriculture.

In our present economy, employers are discovering the value of hiring persons who are stable, long-term employees and who operate effectively as members of a team. Persons with disabilities or older workers often meet these criteria. Corporations find that ultimately all employees benefit when individuals with special needs are hired. The individual and society profit because employees contribute to the tax structure and reduce society's obligation.

Chapter 1

Aging and the Workplace: Issues and Concerns

James A. Thorson

Aging, like beauty, is in the eye of the beholder.

Society's definition of aging is dynamic. It is dependent upon the task involved. A tennis player may be considered old at age 30, while an orchestra conductor often is at peak performance at age 60. American society has defined the onset of old age as 65, but this is changing.

Definitions

In the 1880s, Germany's Chancellor Otto von Bismarck designated 65 as the age to be eligible for a social pension. The U.S. Congress used this precedent when the Social Security program was authorized in 1935. So, more than 50 years ago, U.S. policymakers adopted a definition of old age that was already more than 50 years old.

This definition of old age, 65, has become increasingly obsolete. Most people now working will not receive full Social Security benefits if they retire before age 67.

Premature Retirement

The original Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 was enacted to protect persons in the upper one-third of the work force: those aged 40-65. The issues involved were premature retirement (moving a 64-year-old out of a job just before qualifying for a pension) and age discrimination (not considering the 50-year-old applicant because of age). The 1978 Amendments to the Age Discrimination Employment Act prohibit compulsory retirement before age 70 in most private sector jobs. Many government units, including the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, have eliminated an upper age limit. (The exception to this law is persons in "high policy-making positions" who are entitled to employer-financed private pensions exceeding $27,000 per year.)

The act also prohibits federal mandatory retirement at any age. Since 1978, this issue has become moot. Federal retirement plans are so good that very few employees work beyond age 70. Legislation enacted in 1986 removed the upper age limit for retirement in all occupations except for tenured college faculty who may be required to retire at age 70 until January 1, 1994, at which time that exception will be removed.

The age at which full Social Security benefits can be received has also been redefined. Currently, widows, at age 60, and workers who have contributed to the system, at age 62, can receive partial benefits under Social Security. Contributing workers are eligible for full benefits at age 65. Most private pension plans are targeted around the same ages.

Age 67 for Future Benefits

Age 65 has defined the onset of retirement for more than 50 years. The Budget Reconciliation Act of 1984, however, has changed the definition of old age for those who will retire in the future. On a graduated scale, persons who retire during the first decade of the next century must be 66 to receive full Social Security benefits; the age increases to 67 a few years later.

This method was devised to keep the system actuarially sound rather than to promote the concept that the 65-year-old worker is not really old. Those who retire at age 65 in the year 2010 will receive only partial benefits. Thus, aging is redefined.

Other programs use different definitions. Some vocational rehabilitation programs view individuals aged 45 and older as older workers. Most programs administered by the U.S. Department of Labor use this definition. Although, coverage under the Older Americans Act usually begins at age 55.

Aging Occurs Differently

Government definitions ignore the fundamental concept of gerontology: people age at different rates. And, variability within populations increases as age increases. Donahue and her

colleagues (1960) point out that compulsory retirement at a specific age disregards important individual differences in capacity. Some persons have fulfilled their potential by the time they retire. But, others are going strong at age 75 and can outwork many younger people. Just as people live to different ages, people age at different rates. Individual differences increase with age.

Imagine a group of 5-year-olds, all similar in many ways. Think of the changes that group of children will experience over 60 years. By age 65, 20 percent of them will have died. Some will be near death, but others will live another 30 years. Some will have achieved great things during the 60-year span; others will have stagnated. The average male in the group can anticipate another 14.5 years of life; the average female another 18.9 (Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1985). Some will want to retire, others will have great and creative work remaining. Some will already be retired because of health or wealth; others will want to continue working.

In fact, this group of 65-year-olds can be divided into those who want to work and those who want to retire. Many would like to continue participation in the labor force on a part-time basis. In 1980, 19.1 percent of men and 8.1 percent of women aged 65 and older were active members of the labor force (Sandell, 1985). More than 72 percent of males and 45.3 percent of females in the 55-64 age group were working. In the younger group, 94.5 percent worked full time.

Seventy-six Percent of Men, 84 Percent of Women Retire Before Age 65

This implies that about 25 percent of male workers aged 55-64 would prefer to be out of the labor market. Other figures confirm this. A 1982 study of new beneficiaries conducted by the Social Security Administration shows that among first-time beneficiaries, 76 percent of the men and 84 percent of the women retired before age 65. Half of them had filed for benefits at age 62. (Remember, this is not a survey of all retirees, just of new Social Security beneficiaries.)

When asked why they retired early, the most frequent response was simply a "desire to retire." Health reasons was the second most frequent response. One-third of the beneficiaries gave the first response--they simply did not want to work. Because they could afford to retire, they did.

Liberation from Drudgery

For early retirees, motivations varied. Some said they could not wait to get out of miserable, repetitive, physically draining jobs that they hated. The financial ability to retire meant liberation from drudgery. Fleisher and Kaplan (1980) found that older workers are more satisfied with jobs that require a higher level of attention and carry a significant level of responsibility. (This theme will be expanded in the next section.)

Many people, however, continue to work past the age at which retirement is thought to be appropriate. Late in their careers, workers can be divided into two groups: those who want to work and those who do not. No single definition of older will be adequate in every situation. Many people do not think of 45 as older. However, those aged 45 and older who think they have been victims of age discrimination may file complaints with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC).

Transitions from 55 to 74

The U.S. Senate Special Committee on Aging (1985) indicates that the health profiles of persons aged 65 to 74 are more similar to the group aged 45 to 64 than they are to those aged 75 and older. That is, 75 is a better point at which to consider the decrements usually associated with old age. Because many people retire at age 55, and most have by age 75, this is a significant age group. Most of the transitions from full-time work to full-time retirement occur during these years. Most of these persons are, in fact, workers. During these two decades, most people are facing the issues associated with aging. They are the older workers.

Myths and Stereotypes

Many stereotypes have influenced society's perception of the older worker. Commonly accepted attitudes imply that

older employees are sick of their jobs and just waiting to retire, are less productive than younger workers, are more interested in personal benefits than in the good of the organization, are less creative and less ambitious, are more likely to have accidents, are likely to use all of their sick leave for real or imagined illnesses, are less willing to cooperate with supervisors, and are generally slower to acquire technical skills.

Stereotypes Do Not Apply

There probably is an older worker somewhere in the country to whom all of these traits can apply. But, research leads inevitably to the conclusion that most stereotypes do not apply to most older workers.

Attitudes and Interests

Studies (Doering, Rhodes, and Shuster, 1983) indicate more positive characteristics among older workers than among younger workers. Senior employees are more committed to a work ethic, take greater pride in their work, are less interested in monetary rewards, receive greater satisfaction with their jobs and the work involved in them, respond more positively to supervision, become more involved with their jobs, and have a greater commitment to the organization.

Physical Indicators of Productivity

Researchers have also investigated the physical indicators of productivity, such as job performance, absenteeism, accidents, and job-related injuries. Studies of industrial gerontology provide information on the quantity of work as well as its quality.

Research data show that older workers have lower rates of absenteeism, accidents, and turnover and that they are more productive in tasks requiring judgment. They are somewhat less capable than younger workers in jobs that require speed and strength, but this is compensated for by steadiness and faithfulness to the job (Schwab and Heneman, 1977; Doering, Rhodes, and Schuster, 1983).

Older Persons Continue To Learn

Although most jobs in our information-based society require more brainpower than physical strength and speed, stereotypes and misinformation have lowered the image of older workers in a few areas. Phrases such as "you can't teach an old dog new tricks" are generally accepted. Older persons who believe that they can no longer be effective learners have little incentive to learn new things, and some may cease to try to continue learning. However, reliable evidence indicates that when physical illness is not a problem, older people continue to be efficient learners well into the eighth decade of life.

Longitudinal studies provide the best evidence of a systematic decline, if one exists. An individual's lifespan is studied and tested at certain intervals in this kind of research. It gives a clear picture of any decline, or improvement, in intelligence. A longitudinal study is difficult to perform, because it takes many years to complete and requires many retestings. However, some longitudinal studies have been completed.

In 1950, William Owens discovered some Army Alpha Intelligence Tests that had been used as an admissions device for freshmen entering Iowa State University in 1919. He located and retested 127 of these individuals. According to earlier theories, the subjects would have shown some evidence of decline in their abilities over time. Instead, the opposite was true.

The only decline in abilities found in this study was in arithmetical computation. This decline was not statistically significant. After 31 years, math skills declined slightly, probably due to lack of use. The number series completion subscale showed no decline or gain. Significant gains occurred in practical judgment, vocabulary, sentence completions, and general level of information. The group's overall gain was 55 percent. The results are summarized in table 1.

Table 1

Army Alpha Intelligence Test:
Results of a Retest After 31 Years

Army Alpha Subtests	Gain
Following directions	0.04
Arithmetical problems	-.10
Number of series completed	0
Analogies	.14
Practical judgment	.54
Synonym-antonym vocabulary	.55
Disarranged sentences	.63
Information	.93
Total	.55

Source: Jones, H., "Intelligence and Problem Solving" in *Handbook of Aging and the Individual*, University of Chicago Press, 1959.

Researchers who have followed middle-aged adults into late life confirm Owens' findings (Busse and Pfeiffer, 1969; Palmore, 1974). Unless physical illness is present, there is no reason to expect any intellectual decline with age. In many important areas, performance improves with age.

An important concept of gerontology is that if you do not use it, you will lose it. This is as important with mental abilities as with physical abilities. Practicing a task or skill remains exceedingly important: older accountants do not lose their mathematical abilities, nor do older proofreaders forget how to spell.

In summary, tests show no evidence of intellectual decline unless there is evidence of some illness or trauma. If a person remains healthy, abilities should not decline.

Traditional Labels and Real Performance

Wisdom and Experience Make Up for Decreased Reaction

Stereotypes about older workers are often misleading. Traditional definitions of aging may be irrelevant to determining the value of older workers. Functional capacity seems to hold constant at least until age 75. Individual differences are apparently greater than differences between groups. Few jobs require employees to work constantly, and wisdom and experience often make up for decreased reaction times.

Consequently, older workers make fewer mistakes and have fewer accidents. Older workers have a greater commitment to the job, are more satisfied with the job and the work involved in it, are less likely to resign, are more receptive to supervision, have a lower absenteeism rate, and have a greater commitment to both the work ethic and the goals of the organization. Consequently, older workers are often more productive than their younger counterparts. There is no reason to expect mental decline in aging. Older workers can and do learn new things and adapt to change.

Major Issues Concerning Older Workers and the Workplace

Because of the 1978 action of Congress, mandatory retirement is less of a concern to older workers now than it once was. However, it is still a concern of the 70-year-old who wishes to continue working. Congressman Claude Pepper has been successful in enacting legislation that prohibits mandatory retirement. Also, the American Association of Retired Persons (AARP) has supported court appeals concerning mandatory retirement. The organization contends that it is as constitutionally unfair to discriminate against people because of age as it is to discriminate against them because of race or sex.

Involuntary Retirement

Older workers are also concerned with involuntary early retirement. Older workers now have certain legal protections, although some employers who want to reduce their labor pools

pressure older workers to retire prematurely with only partial benefits.

Most retirement plans offer material benefits and freedom of choice that may be beneficial to both the employer and the employee. Also, such plans often provide partial retirement or gradual disengagement from the work role--a very attractive choice for some older workers.

A Corporate Example

Pre-retirement Program

The Bekaert Steel Company goes to great lengths to reward faithful employees (Thorson and Waskel, 1985). It is a multi-national manufacturer of surgical steel, wire, and needles, and has plants throughout the United States and Europe. In 1969, Bekaert began the first cycle of a 5-year program of pre-retirement preparation for workers. Most employees qualify for full benefits at age 65, although they are free to stay until age 70.

Five years before retirement, employees begin to participate for several hours a week in the pre-retirement program. Program contacts progress each year to 48 half-days at age 63 and another 48 half-days at age 64. Medical examinations follow 60th, 62nd, and 64th birthdays. Professionals and factory workers, including spouses, participate in classes that provide conceptual information, cultural activities, and physical exercise. Pension benefits, insurance, taxes, family budgeting, and adjusting to retirement are discussed. When asked about Bekaert's obvious commitment to the retirement program, the program designer replied, "Well, that's what decent people try to do."

A Shortage of Older Workers

Most employers do not recognize the shortage of older workers. However, this problem will become increasingly severe in the future. Copperman and Keast (1983) point out that the number of younger workers will decline through the year 1995. They conclude that this will lead to enhanced

employment demand of other groups in the labor force, notably older workers.

However, this demand will be hampered by a decades-long trend toward early retirement. Sheppard and Rix (1977) of the American Institute for Research, noted that, "By 1975, only 14 percent of those 65 and older will remain in the labor force, and projections to 2010 indicate that the decline in labor-force participation of the elderly will continue."

Unemployment or Underemployment

Unemployment Factors

Unemployment is another motivator for early retirement. The unemployed or underemployed worker may choose to leave the labor market. Periods of economic recession and unemployment will always produce increased rates of retirement. During periods of economic recovery, older workers are usually the last to benefit. Sheppard and Rix (1977) point out that during the 1975-76 recovery, total unemployment in the United States declined from 8.3 million to 7.9 million. However, during this period, unemployment among older workers increased from 729,000 to 763,000. Some of these frustrated workers leave the labor market because they do not think they can compete with younger workers.

Declining Birthrate

Competition for jobs has been a traditional explanation for early retirement and for unemployment of older workers. Some employers believe that they can get a job done cheaper by hiring younger workers. And, during the past two decades baby boomers have provided an almost unlimited supply of younger workers. The birthrate, however, has been declining since 1960, and this large pool of younger workers has been declining since 1980. The trend of forcing older people out of the labor market to employ younger people will probably be reversed soon.

Early Retirement Reversed

A similar reversal in the trend toward early retirement is also inevitable. Paradoxically, the age at which future beneficiaries receive full Social Security benefits has been altered, yet most projections predict the continuing early

retirement of older workers. Sheppard and Rix (1977) foresee a turning point:

> It does seem unreasonable to expect the retirement age of this country to continue to decline. Certain kinds of trends in any human society or economy are subject to the principle of limits, or seem to be. For example, if everybody 55 and older were to be retired by the year 2000, at least 20 percent of the total population would be directly affected--nearly twice the proportion if we had a universal retirement-at-65 policy...we should expect the principle of limits to work its way into our retirement policymaking...The issue is, can the growing retired population be adequately supported? (p. 8-9)

Factors in the Workplace

Employers who actively hire, train, and retain older workers have found a number of factors critical to success.

Supervisor Cooperation

Cooperation. First, supervisors must be willing to cooperate. According to Root and Zarraugh (1985), the personnel department at Great American First Savings Bank in San Diego responded to rapid turnover in entry-level positions by recruiting older workers.

> Although there was support from upper and middle managment for this innovation, a few line-level staff and branch bank managers had to overcome their misconceptions and stereotypes of older workers. As the older employees proved their value in the workplace, acceptance grew, as did hiring opportunities. This acceptance was vital to the program... (p. 31).

Flexibility Critical for Success

Flexibility. New options for partial retirement must be available. Therefore, flexibility is also critical for success. Many companies have instituted flex-time, part-time jobs, rehiring and retraining programs for retirees, and altering pension systems to remove disincentives for continued work. For example, individuals who can adjust their arrival and

quitting times and the length of their workday or can learn a new job within the company may be able to contribute for a long time. Cooperman and Keast (1983) observe that, "Employers are a remarkably flexible group. Over the years, businesses which have lasted have been able to do so only through the continual and occasionally dramatic adoption of change" (p. 148).

Benefits to Employees

Economic Survival

The retention and re-hiring of older workers is useful to workers for several reasons. For many, the need to remain in the workplace is a simple matter of survival. The only retirement pension many people will have will come from Social Security. Social Security can be obtained at age 62 with reduced benefits or at age 65 with full benefits. Therefore, it is necessary that these individuals work until their 65th birthdays.

Employment and Identity

For many older workers, employment gives a sense of identity and contributes to their psychological well-being. The job itself helps determine status and a sense of identity. The second question usually asked when meeting a stranger (after "What is your name?") is, "What do you do for a living?" Most people use employment as a primary identification factor.

Work Reduces Isolation

Participation in the work force helps eliminate the sense of isolation experienced by many older workers. Most social interaction happens in the workplace.

Benefits to Employers

Stable Work Force

Employers who hire and retain older workers often experience reduced turnover and absenteeism rates and fewer job-related accidents. Also, they maintain a high level of productivity. They are not dependent on a younger work force, and are frequently able to get a job done by a more stable group of older workers.

Effects on Society

The influence of changes in policy and in attitudes toward older workers will probably be gradual. Many older workers are still caught up in traditional beliefs, and about half of new applicants for Social Security are now early retirees.

Employees and employers must be flexible. Society must abandon collective thinking that dictates a specific retirement age. While some people will want to retire at age 60 because of ill health, others may want to work past age 70. They may want to work part-time or seasonally, share a job with someone else, or return to their old job or a different one after taking a sabbatical.

Society Cannot Afford Pensioning at Same Rate

One thing, however, is clear: society cannot afford to pension-off older workers as in the past. With the decline in the birthrate, we will experience a major shortage of new job entrants in the near future. As baby boomers become older, we will also be looking toward the retirement of an enormous segment of the present work force. The Social Security system has been modified because society cannot afford to retire its veteran workers. Thus, programs to encourage the employment of older workers may at present be insignificant, but they will become the norm in the future.

Chapter 2

Disability in the Workplace: Issues and Concerns

Karen Faison

The 1980s may be the decade when persons with disabilities really become an integral part of society. Never before has legislation focused so intensively on persons with disabilities. Never before has so much freedom--of access, movement, and, in some cases, employment--been available.

Although legislative attention has focused on persons with disabilities, much is left to do. The unemployment rate among persons with disabilities is high, accessibility of the workplace is incomplete, transportation to the workplace is not always available, and many persons with disabilities live in or near poverty. Persons with severe disabilities are often considered marginally employable. Although some legislation has been passed, it still must be implemented.

Definitions

Persons with Disabilities

The words handicapped and disabled are often used interchangeably. The word handicapped is derived from the phrase "cap in hand"; hence, a beggar. The word itself denotes those to whom it is applied. The word "disabled" is being used to designate persons with disabilities. "Disabled" differentiates those with a functional disability, mental or physical, from able-bodied persons. It is the term that is preferred.

Persons with disabilities often do not fit statistical averages in height, weight, strength, or function. Actually, these persons face a disabling environment, designed for the average person. The societally imposed disability increases as the individual varies from average measurement and capability. If the variance is far enough from the norm, the person has a functional disability.

Civil Rights Legislation

Civil rights legislation for persons with disabilities developed in 1973 with the passage of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act. This act defines a handicapped person as follows:

- "A handicapped individual has a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more of such person's major life activities."

- "The individual has a record of such impairment." This may refer to persons who have been institutionalized for mental illness. Their record of mental illness prevents their employment. It may also apply to those with a history of seizures who have been seizure-free for several years. If past seizure activity prevents employment or hampers other activities, it is still considered a handicapping condition. Any history of disability that stands in the way of employment is included in this definition.

- "The person may also be regarded as having such an impairment." This often refers to persons with mild mental retardation. They are not handicapped relative to job performance, but may be viewed by others as disabled. Therefore, they cannot fulfill their own employment wishes.

The definition of handicapped varies and is subject to many interpretations. Brief descriptions of major physical and mental disabilities are found in the appendix.

Myths and Stereotypes

Persons with disabilities are often perceived as helpless and dependent.

Dependency Reinforced

If we perceive an individual as helpless and dependent, then we will, of course, expect only helpless and dependent behavior from the individual. These limited expectations encourage us to place the person in highly structured protected environments

> where helplessness and dependency are only reinforced. The end result provides us with the confirmation of our original expectations--that of helplessness and dependency. As a result, this individual becomes unknowingly caught up in a vicious, self-perpetuating cycle of dependency and inadequacy (DuRand and DuRand, 1978, p. 6-7).

Persons with Disabilities Stigmatized

The myths and stereotypes about persons with disabilities are probably the greatest barrier they face. Sometimes preconceived ideas of the capabilities of people with disabilities limit employment opportunities.

Some stereotypes regarding persons with disabilities are the result of economic trends. For example, when the United States was primarily agrarian, persons with disabilities were considered contributing members of society. As industrialization began, there were fewer jobs for persons with disabilities. As a result, those with special needs (primarily those who were mentally retarded) were placed in private schools with special education programs. These schools eventually evolved to full-time residential schools or institutions.

The economic health of the surrounding countryside determined the welfare of institutionalized persons, because most large institutions were dependent on the local community for support. Eventually, less and less money was spent proportionately on institutionalized individuals.

Growth of Institutions

By the 1880s, institutions began to grow and to become overcrowded. They served a bread and board function. Problems were further complicated by the perpetuation of the belief in eugenics. Eugenics attributed all cases of mental retardation and some disabilities to genetics. Because bad genes were thought to be the cause of disabilities, there was a unified effort to remove this menace from society. Wide-scale sterilization took place.

Because persons with disabilities were segregated in warehouse settings, they were perceived as different by

persons on the outside. It was believed that persons on the inside were a danger to society or were somehow deviant or less than human. This perception resulted in inhumane treatment for many people in institutions.

Developing Human Beings

These beliefs continued until the 1950s, when the United States began to financially support studies of the needs of persons with disabilities. A strong parents' movement developed, and attention was given to persons with mental retardation and other disabilities. For the past 25 years, the belief that persons with disabilities are capable human beings, has become widely accepted. As more and more persons with disabilities enter the labor force, this perception can only become stronger.

Stereotypes Are Devastating

Myths and stereotypes are devastating to persons with disabilities. These preconceived ideas prevent these persons from entering the work force. Only by discussion and by knowing people as individuals can we rid ourselves of the effects of stereotypes.

Traditional Labels and Real Performance

Stereotyping Is Destructive

In 1983, the United States Commission on Civil Rights reported:

> ...some authorities have noted that handicapped people are subject to 'job stereotyping' whereby employers and vocational guidance counselors channel everyone with particular disabilities into certain types of jobs. In some instances, this means that handicapped persons are considered more suited for unskilled, low-paying positions involving monotonous tasks.

Many examples of job stereotyping exist, such as, visually impaired people are good at selling brooms or running refreshment stands, people with mental retardation are good janitors, or persons with physical disabilities are better-than-average computer programmers. **It is possible that such stereotyping can be as destructive as some of the labels that we have all chosen to discard, such as cripple or retard.**

Persons with disabilities have varied interests and talents. A visually impaired person may be an expert computer programmer using a talking or braille computer. A person who is mentally retarded may be effective on a factory assembly line or in many other jobs. **There is no ideal employment for any group of people.**

Skills Training Is Essential

People must be treated as individuals; personal goals must be set, and specific skill training must be provided. The DuPont Corporation has hired workers with disabilities for more than 25 years. In 1981, they completed an extensive study of the safety, performance, and attendance records of workers with disabilities and compared them to nonimpaired workers. These results were then compared with studies completed in 1973.

In the area of safety, 96 percent of the workers with disabilities had an average or above average safety record compared with 92 percent of the nonimpaired workers. Overall job performance showed that workers with disabilities slightly out-performed nonimpaired workers; 92 percent received high ratings compared with 91 percent of the nonimpaired workers. In attendance, 85 percent of the workers with disabilities received high ratings, compared with 91 percent of the nonimpaired workers. Persons with disabilities varied somewhat in their ratings, depending on the type of disability. Similar studies conducted by the National Restaurant Association showed that workers with disabilities had excellent attendance and low turnover records.

Major Issues Concerning Individuals with Disabilities and the Workplace

Exclusion from Education and Training

Prior to the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, persons with disabilities were regularly excluded from education and training. People who had physical disabilities were prevented from attending classes because of environmental obstacles, such as long flights of stairs and narrow doorways. Persons with mental retardation were denied admittance to regular training classes based on the assumption that they just could not learn.

America's Hidden Work Force

In 1976, the U.S. Department of Labor reported that 145,000 individuals with physical and mental disabilities worked in sheltered workshops. In 1975, these individuals earned more than $100 million, usually performing subcontracting work for businesses and industries.

Most of these individuals were hidden from the rest of society. Their wages increased by only seven percent from 1968 to 1976, compared with a 44-percent increase in the minimum wage set by the Fair Labor Standards Act. The average workshop employee earned $0.43 an hour, worked about 20 hours each week on contract work, and received monthly earnings of about $31. Half of these individuals depend on supplemental support income, and some depend on their families for survival. About 12 percent of workshop clients advance to competitive employment, but only 7 percent of individuals with severe disabilities obtain competitive employment.

Eighty Percent Are Mentally Ill or Mentally Retarded

Individuals in sheltered workshops (vocational training work sites) have various and often, multiple disabilities--cerebral palsy and neurological disorders are common. But, 80 percent of the workshop clients are either mentally retarded or mentally ill, and only 20 percent have physical disabilities.

Some workshops, which provide segregated opportunities for persons with disabilities to learn work skills, are exemplary programs, capable of sophisticated manufacturing techniques. Their employees can perform the most difficult contract work, which is usually subcontracted from industries. Other workshops lack the equipment, facilities, and expertise to perform elementary industrial operations. Their workers are dependent on simple crafts and handwork. Usually, the work is subcontracted from industry.

Exclusion from Employment

Parrino (1984) reported that the official unemployment rate in 1981 and 1982 was almost 17 percent among males

High Unemployment Rate

with disabilities and more than 18 percent among females with disabilities. If unemployed persons with disabilities and those persons with disabilities who have never been part of the labor force are combined, the rate is 65.5 percent for males and 80.6 percent for females. The reasons vary, but if an individual has a disability, the percentages favor unemployment.

Many people with disabilities are also underemployed for several reasons. Adults with mental retardation, for example, are often employed in fast-food businesses or in other areas where part-time help is the norm. Employment for this group may be 20 or less hours a week. Persons who operate computers at home often find they do not work full-time. Companies that hire persons with disabilities are sometimes reluctant to invest in these employees on a full-time basis. It is easier and less expensive to keep the individual in a part-time job, or in one with no opportunity for advancement. Sometimes, workers in these jobs do not receive benefits either.

Work Disincentives

Persons with disabilities also encounter disincentives to work. Persons who qualify for Social Security disability payments and for Medicaid (payments and benefits assigned to the individual by the federal government granting subsistence income or medical benefits or both) often find that they must pay a penalty when they become employed. The penalty varies, but can include losing all benefits.

Job Often Costs Benefits

For some part-time workers, taxes and other related work costs reduce take-home pay to less than Social Security or Supplemental Security Income (SSI) benefits, or a combination of both. For many people with disabilities, the old axiom of "last hired, first fired," has proven true. Companies that have recently started hiring persons with disabilities illustrate that the first employees to be laid off are those who are disabled.

In the Future

There should be more jobs available in the future for persons with disabilities. Frank Bowe (1984) indicates that, "If the economy generates an average of two million jobs annually as it did in 1970 to 1982 and if the labor supply grows at a 1.3 percent rate as some people expect, the gap between the number of jobs and job seekers will narrow in the coming years, coming together in the year 2000." Some data even indicate that there will be a shortage of 100,000 job seekers per year in entry-level positions.

Five Areas for Future Jobs

Bowe predicted that job availability will increase in five areas and that these jobs will be available to persons with severe physical, sensory, and mental disabilities. These areas include the following: (1) **general services**, including direct services to the public and to employers (secretarial and related office work; hotel, motel, and convention services; and home management); (2) **special services**, including jobs where direct services, such as devices and equipment, are provided to persons with special needs; (3) **sales**, including many telemarketing jobs; (4) **information services**, in which experts and other highly qualified people offer guidance and advice to corporate and individual clients, including persons with special needs (CPAs, stock analysts, and attorneys); and (5) **self-owned businesses**. Some predict that the number of self-owned businesses will be on the rise. (See Chapter 1 of *Business Practices and Resources* for further details.)

Factors in the Workplace

Five major success factors must be examined regarding persons with disabilities in the workplace: (1) working with managers, (2) the individual's qualifications for a specific job, (3) the job analysis, (4) job accommodation and training, and (5) the cooperation of nonimpaired employees. If a corporation or agency is to establish a successful affirmative action program for persons with disabilities, these five factors must be considered. Detailed information on all these important factors are included in the other modules in this kit.

Benefits to Employees

Effective programs for employing persons with disabilities enrich lifestyles in the following ways:

Economic Survival

One primary benefit to the employee with disabilities is the opportunity to take home a paycheck. Governmental assistance, often the primary income for the individual, does not provide much more than subsistence income. A larger paycheck opens new doors to a better lifestyle.

Self-esteem Is Important

Equally important is the sense of self-esteem that accompanies finding and keeping a job. In a work-oriented society, a job often determines self-esteem. A person with a job enjoys the approval of others, while persons without jobs are often perceived as less able than others.

Work Reduces Isolation

The employed person loses the sense of isolation often experienced by the unemployed. Opportunities for socialization occur at the workplace.

Benefits to Employers

Employers with effective programs of hiring persons with disabilities increase the possibility of acquiring the most qualified person for each job. A portion of the work force will not be discriminated against, and, consequently, the number of applicants will increase, providing a broader base for selection.

Meeting Requirements of Sections 503 and 504

Another reason for some employers to hire and retain persons with disabilities is to meet the requirements of Sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. It is critical for companies utilizing federal funds in any way to meet these requirements.

In addition, employers who hire persons with disabilities will learn that their work records are equal to those of nondisabled employees.

The integration of the work force is another advantage. This may or may not influence the profit status of the company. However, it is important in terms of the societal perceptions of the company. A well-balanced work force of persons who are able-bodied and persons with disabilities reflects management's open, clear commitment to the rights of individuals. This commitment is likely to attract more business.

Long-term Employees

An important consideration for many companies is maintaining employment of those who have become disabled while working, either through illness or accident. It is advantageous to the company to develop a program to place these people back on a job, rather than pay long-term disability or other forms of assistance. It is also cost-effective to keep the same person on a job, rather than to hire and train a new employee.

Benefits to Society

Social Factors

It is important that dignity and respect be given all citizens. In a work-oriented society, citizens obtain respect as part of the work force. Ensuring that jobs are available to all leads to the integration of society.

If persons with disabilities obtain and maintain employment, social welfare program costs may decrease subsequently. A person who is working may be able to suspend SSI and Social Security payments and replace them with salary. However, such a suspension from SSI will require a position beyond entry-level and part-time jobs.

Social Welfare Savings

Another cost benefit can be realized relative to the cost of institutionalization. Between $25,000 and $60,000 per year in tax funds are used to keep an individual in a nonproductive setting. Such a cost, even at the lower figure, can mean $1.25 million spent over a 50-year lifespan. It makes sense to incorporate individuals with disabilities into the workplace, where they pay taxes rather than use tax dollars.

Conclusion

Since the implementation of affirmative action legislation, employers have been given legal requirements concerning employment of special groups (race, sex, age, and disability). This training kit goes beyond what must be done, and provides the employer with helpful information about successful employment of individuals with special needs.

Appendix

Definitions of Major Physical and Mental Disabilities

Cerebral Palsy

Cerebral palsy describes a group of disorders characterized by motor problems. Persons with cerebral palsy may have a minor impairment of one limb or major impairment of all four limbs, impairment of speech, or both. Sometimes, movement may seem uncoordinated. Sometimes, the person loses the ability to use one or more limbs effectively. Although cerebral palsy is sometimes associated with mental retardation, only about 29 percent of persons with cerebral palsy are also mentally retarded (Hayden and Beck, 1982).

Mental Retardation

Mental retardation has been defined by the American Association on Mental Deficiency (Grossman, 1973). The association developed a system to classify persons with mental retardation. A person is considered to be mentally retarded who is "significantly below average in terms of his intellectual functioning as well as demonstrating deficits in his adaptive behavior." These conditions must exist during the developmental period of the individual, which is defined as occurring before age 22.

Marc Gold (1980) suggested an alternative definition of mental retardation that appears more practical:

> Mental retardation refers to a level of functioning which requires from society significantly above average training procedures and superior assets in adaptive behavior on the part of society, manifested throughout the life of both society and the individual.
>
> The mentally retarded person is characterized by the level of power needed in the training process required for her to learn, and not by limitations of what she can learn.

> The height of a retarded person's level of functioning is determined by the availability of training technology and the amount of resources society is willing to allocate and not by significant limitations in biological potential.

Psychiatric Disabilities

According to Minkoff (1984) and Goldman (1984), persons with severe psychiatric disabilities include those who: (1) have been diagnosed as having a major mental illness, such as a psychotic or other major disorder (organic mental disorder, schizophrenic disorder, major affective disorder, other psychotic disorder, or personality disorder); (2) exhibit functional impairment in role performance resulting in moderate to severe disability; and (3) have an illness and disabilities which have endured or are likely to endure over time. This includes those who are sometimes called chronically mentally ill and a large portion of those who are sometimes called mentally restored (Shoultz, 1985).

It is important not to confuse mental retardation and mental illness. Generally, mental retardation is characterized as persons who take longer to learn a task than other persons of the same age in the same environment. Teaching these persons requires significant knowledge and background.

Persons with psychiatric disabilities may function at any intellectual level. The psychiatric disability may begin at any age, whereas mental retardation is usually identified early in life.

Some persons who are mentally retarded are also mentally ill. Recently, basic teaching techniques have been defined for these persons.

Seizure Disorders

Seizure disorders are caused by a disturbance of the function of the brain. They often develop suddenly, stop, and then recur unpredictably. Seizures may occur at any point in a person's life. The term epilepsy is used when seizures occur

repeatedly. According to Green (1985), there are two classifications of seizures--generalized and partial. Specific seizures are described within each of these classifications.

Seizures are classified according to their origin.

> Partial seizures are local discharges of electricity in the upper part of the brain, while general seizures originate in the deepest centers that control the entire body and its unconscious bodily functions. Seizures range from massive convulsions and losses of consciousness to very brief losses of consciousness with few outward signs of behavioral disturbance (Jackson and Lewis, 1985).

Sensory Disorders

According to Thompson and O'Quinn, (1979): "Sensory disorders include those of vision and hearing. The terms deafness and blindness imply the most severe form of impairment of hearing and impairment of vision, although less severe impairment may also result in disability. The impairment of function may be related to malfunction of any part of the auditory or the visual mechanism...."

Thompson and O'Quinn developed the following classification of severity of impairment for hearing impaired persons. They include:

> (1) the hard of hearing as persons who are still able to understand fluent speech through hearing whether or not amplification is used; (2) the partially hearing or persons whose loss of hearing is so severe that they require a special educational curriculum and a program involving full-time auditory training along with vision for developing language and communication skills; (3) the deaf, including people whose principal source for learning language and communication skills is visual and whose loss of hearing, with or without amplification, is so great that it is of little or no practical value in training them to understand verbal communications auditorially. Their loss of hearing was acquired before they attained language.

It is more difficult to classify persons with visual impairment, although Westat (1976) suggests a meaningful approach:

> Impaired vision is the classification used for individuals who have any trouble seeing with one or both eyes even when wearing glasses. Severe visual impairment includes those persons, six years of age or older, who are unable to read ordinary newspaper print with glasses using both eyes or who, at any age, report "no useful vision" in either eye or "blindness" in both eyes. Legal blindness is defined as visual acuity for distant vision of 20/200 or less in the better eye with best correction or the widest diameter of visual field subtending an angle less than 20 degrees.

Specific Learning Disabilities

In 1984, the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities defined specific learning disabilities.

> Specific learning disability is a chronic condition of presumed neurological origin which selectively interferes with the development, integration, and/or demonstration of verbal and/or nonverbal abilities.
>
> Specific learning disabilities exist as a distinct handicapping condition in the presence of average to superior intelligence, adequate sensory and motor systems, and adequate learning opportunities. The condition varies in its manifestations and in degree of severity.
>
> Throughout life the condition can affect self-esteem, education, vocation, socialization, and/or daily living activities.
>
> Specific learning disabilities are most apparent when the individual is engaged in learning academic skills. Therefore, it is usually first discovered when a child goes to school. It may occur in the areas of reading, writing, and mathematics.

Persons with specific learning disabilities often learn to compensate for their difficulties and are able to function effectively in academic or other settings.

Other Disabilities

Other disabilities involving disabling conditions result from accidents or illnesses. These conditions include: (1) loss of a limb; (2) spinal cord injuries which often result in paralysis of two or, sometimes, all four limbs; (3) and a disability that occurs as the result of a stroke or other major illness.

Developmental Disabilities

Developmental Disabilities Defined

The term, developmental disability, was defined by the Office of Developmental Disabilities in 1984 in Public Law 98-527. It was defined as a:

> ...severe, chronic disability of a person which:
>
> 1. is attributable to a mental or physical impairment or a combination of mental and physical impairments
>
> 2. is manifested before the person attains age 22
>
> 3. is likely to continue indefinitely
>
> 4. results in substantial functional limitations in three or more of the following areas of major life activity:
>   a) self-care
>   b) receptive and expressive language
>   c) learning
>   d) mobility
>   d) self-direction
>   e) capacity for independent living
>   f) economic self-sufficiency; and
>
> 5. reflects the person's need for a combination and sequence of special interdisciplinary or generic care, treatment, or other services which are of lifelong or extended duration and are individually planned and coordinated.

This definition of developmental disabilities is widely used. It does not refer to any categorical disability, such as mental retardation, or cerebral palsy, but to substantial mental

or physical impairment or a combination of both. It is a functional definition.

Persons who experience disability later in life have usually had some work experience and may return to the same job. They may also find another position that requires their previous experience and can also accommodate the disability. The challenge for persons who are disabled from birth is entering the work force initially.

References

Aldag, R., and A. Brief. "Age and Reactions to Task Characteristics." *Industrial Gerontology* 2(1975):223-29.

Aldag, R., and A. Brief. "Age, Work Values, and Employee Reactions." *Industrial Gerontology* 4(1977):192-97.

Arnold, H., and D. Feldman. "A Multivariated Analysis of the Determinants of Job Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 67(1982):350-60.

AT&T. *The Job Accommodation Specialist Team: Guidelines, Procedures and References.* American Telephone and Telegraph. Undated pamphlet.

Blumbert, M. "Job Switching in Autonomous Work Groups: An Exploratory Study in a Pennsylvania Coal Mine." *Academy of Management Journal* 23(1980):287-306.

Bolton, B., and R. Roessler. "After the Interview: How Employers Rate Handicapped Employees." *Personnel* 62(1985):38-41.

Botwinick, J. *Aging and Behavior.* New York: Springer, 1973.

Bourne, B. "Effects of Aging on Work Satisfaction, Performance, and Motivation." *Aging and Work* 5(1982)37-47.

Bowe, F. *Employment Trends: 1984 and Beyond. Where the Jobs Will Be.* Hot Springs, AR: Rehabilitation and Research Center, University of Arkansas, 1984.

Brickey, M., and K. Campbell. "Fast Food Employment for Moderately and Mildly Retarded Adults." *Mental Retardation* 19(1981):113-116.

Burrough, B. "How GM Began Using Private Eyes in Plants to Fight Drugs, Crime." *Wall Street Journal*, February 27, 1986, p. 1.

Busse, E., and E. Pfeiffer (Eds.). *Behavior and Adaptation in Late Life* by 17 Authors. Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1969.

Cherrington, D., Spencer J. Condie, and J. Lynn England. "Age and Work Values." *Academy of Management Journal* 22(1979):617-23.

Constas, K., and R. Vichas. "An Interpretive Policy-making Model of Absenteeism with Reference to the Marginal Worker in Overseas Plants." *Journal of Management Studies* 17(1980):149-63.

Copperman, K., and F. Keast. *Adjusting to an Older Work Force.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1983.

Davis vs. Southeastern Community College, 442 U.S. 397, 406, 99s Ct. 2361, 2367, 60L Ed. 2nd 980 (1979). *The Legal Rights of Handicapped Persons*, R. L. Burgdorf and P. P. Spicer (Eds.). Baltimore: Brookes Publishing Co., 1983.

Dillingham, A. "Age and Workplace Injuries." *Aging and Work* 4(1981):1-10.

Doering, M., S. Rhodes, and M. Schuster. *The Aging Worker: Research and Recommendations*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, 1983.

Donahue, W., H. Orbach, and O. Pollack. "Retirement: The Emerging Social Pattern." In *Handbook of Social Gerontology*, G. Tibbitts (Ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

DuPont, deNemours and Company, Inc. *Equal to the Task, 1981. DuPont Survey of Employment of the Handicapped*. Wilmington, DE: E. I. DuPont, deNemours and Company, Inc., 1982.

DuRand, L., and J. DuRand. *The Affirmative Industry*. St. Paul, MN: Minnesota Diversified Industries, 1978.

Faison, K., B. Jessing, L. Rood, and B. Loop. *Legal and Ethical Considerations for Persons with Disabilities*. Omaha, NE: Meyer Children's Rehabilitation Institute, University of Nebraska Medical Center, 1985.

Fleisher, D., and B. Kaplan. "Characteristics of Older Workers: Implications for Restructuring Work." *Work and Retirement: Policy Issues*, P. Ragan (Ed.). Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1980.

Froggatt, P. "A Short-term Absence from Industry." *British Journal of Industrial Medicine* 27(1970):199-210.

Gibson, J., and S. Klein. "Employee Attitudes as a Function of Age and Length of Service. A Reconceptualization." *Academy of Management Journal* 13(1970) 411-25.

Goffman, E. *Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1963.

Gold, M. *Did I Say That: Articles and Commentary on the Try Another Way System*. Champaign, IL: Research Press Co., 1980.

Goldman, H. H. "Epidemiology." *The Chronic Mental Patient: Five Years Later*, J. Talbott (Ed.). New York: Grune and Stratton, 1984.

Green, K. *Seizures*. Omaha, NE: Meyer Children's Rehabilitation Institute, University of Nebraska Medical Center, 1985.

Grossman, H. *Manual on Terminology and Classification in Mental Retardation*. Baltimore: American Association on Mental Deficiency, 1973.

Gupta, C., and T. Beehr. "Job Stress and Employee Behaviors." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 23(1979):373-87.

Hayden, A., and G. Beck. "The Epidemiology of High Risk and Handicapped Infants." *Finding and Educating High Risk and Handicapped Infants*, C. T. Ramey and P. L. Trohanis (Eds.). Baltimore: University Press, 1982.

Hewes, A. "Study of Accident Records in a Textile Mill." *Journal of Industrial Hygiene* 3(1921):187-95.

Hulin, C., and P. Smith. "A Linear Model of Job Satisfaction." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 4(1985):209-16.

Hunt, J., and P. Saul. "The Relationship of Age and Tenure and Job Satisfaction in Males and Females." *Academy of Management Journal* 18(1975):690-702.

Jackson, B., and M. R. Lewis. *Human Development*. Omaha, NE: Meyer Children's Rehabilitation Institute, University of Nebraska Medical Center, 1985.

Jarvis, S. S. "For Employers of Handicapped Workers: Obligations and Ideas." *Personnel* 64(1985):42-44.

Jones, H. "Intelligence and Problem Solving." *Handbook of Aging and the Individual*, J. Birren, (Ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959.

Jones, J., and M. Pedler. "A Positive Approach to Employment of Disabled Workers." *Personnel Management* (Britain) 17(July 1985):21-22.

Katz, R. "Job Longevity as a Situational Factor in Job Satisfaction." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 23(1978):204-23.

Kieschnick, W. "ARCO Chief Cites Lessons for Business in NCOA Survey." *Aging and Work* (1981):226-27.

Littman, J. "PCs Put Disabled Employees to Work." *PC Week*, May 21, 1982, p. 71-75.

Meier, E., and C. Dittmar. *Income of the Retired: Levels and Sources*. Washington, DC: President's Commission of the Pension Policy, 1980.

Memolascino, F., and J. McGee. "National Legal and Professional Issues Pertinent to Mental Retardation." *Legal and Ethical Considerations for Persons With Disabilities*. Omaha, NE: Meyer Children's Rehabilitation Institute, 1985.

Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. *Statistical Bulletin* 66, No. 3, p. 20, 1985.

Minkoff, K. "A Map of Chronic Mental Patients." *The Chronic Mental Patient: Five Years Later*, J. Talbott (Ed.). New York: Grune and Stratton, 1984.

Muchinsky, P. "Age and Job Facet Satisfaction: A Conceptual Reconsideration." *Aging and Work* 1(1978):175-79.

Nicholson, N, and P. Goodge. "The Influence of Social, Organizational, and Biographical Factors on Female Absence." *Journal of Management Studies* 13(1976):234-54.

Palmore, E. *Normal Aging II: Reports from the Duke Longitudinal Studies, 1970-73.* Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1974.

Parrino, S. "Disincentives Related to Employment of Persons with Disabilities." Paper presented at conference, "The Community: Living and Working There," Oakland, CA, October 11-13, 1984.

Pati, G. C., J. L. Adkins, Jr., and G. Morrison. *Managing and Employing the Handicapped: The Untapped Potential.* Lake Forest, IL: Brace-Park, 1981.

Robby, R. "Employment of the Disabled in Large Corporations." *International Labour Review* 122(1983):23-26.

Root, L. "Corporate Programs for Older Workers." *Aging* 35(1985):12-15.

Root, L., and L. Zarraugh. *Personnel Practices for an Aging Work Force: Private-sector Examples.* Information paper prepared for use by the Special Committee on Aging, U.S. Senate (S. Prt. 99-10). Washington, DC: National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985.

Root, N. "Injuries at Work Are Fewer Among Older Employees." *Monthly Labor Review* 104(1981):30-34.

Sandell, S. *Older Worker Employment Comes of Age: Practice and Potential.* Washington, DC: National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985.

Schaie, K. "Cross-sectional Methods in the Study of Psychological Aspects of Aging." *Journal of Gerontology* 14(1959):208-15.

Shoultz, B. "Vocational Placement for Persons with Psychiatric Disabilities--A Literature Review." Unpublished paper. Omaha, NE: Center for Applied Urban Research, University of Nebraska at Omaha, 1985.

Schwab, D., and H. Heneman. *The Graying of Working America.* New York: Free Press, 1977.

Sheppard, H., and S. Rix. "Effects of Age and Experience on Productivity." *Industrial Gerontology* 4(1977):113-117.

Sherman, S. "Reported Reasons Workers Left Their Last Job: Findings from the New Beneficiary Survey." *Social Security Bulletin* 48(1985):22-23.

Spencer, D., and R. Steers. "The Influence of Personal Factors and Perceived Work Experiences on Employee Turnover and Absenteeism." *Academy of Management Journal* 23(1980):567-72.

Stumpf, S., and P. Dawley. "Predicting Voluntary and Involuntary Turnover Using Absenteeism and Performance Indices." *Academy of Management Journal* 24(1981):148-63.

Taylor, R., and M. Thompson. "Work Value Systems of Young Workers." *Academy of Management Journal* 19(1976):522-36.

Thompson, R. J., Jr., and A. N. O'Quinn. *Developmental Disabilities: Etiologies, Manifestations, Diagnosis and Treatment*. New York and Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979.

Thorndike, E. L. *Adult Learning*. New York: MacMillan and Co., 1932.

Thorson, J., and S. Waskel. "Future Trends in Education for Older Adults." *Introduction to Educational Gerontology*, R. Sherron, and B. Lunsden (Eds.). Washington, DC: Hemisphere, 1985.

U. S. Commission on Civil Rights. *Accommodating the Spectrum of Individual Abilities*. Washington, DC: Clearinghouse Publication No. 18, September 1983.

U.S. Senate Special Committee on Aging. *Health and Extended Worklife - An Information Paper*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1985.

Waters, L., D. Roach, and C. W. Waters. "Estimates of Future Tenure, Satisfaction, and Biographical Variables as Predictors of Termination." *Personnel Psychology* 29(1976):57-60.

Watson, C. "An Evaluation of Some Aspects of the Steers and Rhodes Model of Employee Attendance." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 66(1981):385-89.

Westat, Inc. *Summary and Critique of Available Data on the Prevalence of Economic and Social Costs of Visual Disorders and Disabilities*. Washington, DC: Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1976.

Williams, A., B. Livy, R. Silverstone, and P. Adams. "Factors Associated with Labor Turnover Among Ancillary Staff in Two London Hospitals." *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 52(1979):1-16.

Wolfensberger, W. *Normalization: The Principle of Normalization in Human Services*. Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972.